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OUTLOOK NOTES

IS THE commercial education of the future to be public or private in its nature? In other words, shall we leave commercial education to private enterprise, or shall we make it a part of the state-supported system of education? There can be no doubt that the private commercial schools will gradually improve to meet the demand for a better product, but they are absolutely dependent upon their income from pupils for their existence, and they will not be able to take a high advanced stand, even though they desire to, nor to lead in the development of commercial education, for leadership is always costly; the followers at first are few. If we could have great endowed commercial schools as we have endowed colleges and universities, we might perhaps leave the matter in private hands. There doubtless always will be private schools for special classes and particular purposes. This is, however, not the way in which as a nation we deal with educational problems. While we freely accord to the private school the honor due for providing for those special cases which never can be met in any great public system, it is totally un-American to depend upon private schools for the occupation of any large field of instruction. We have undertaken to provide at public expense that famous ladder from the gutter to the university. The old definition of a university as a place where nothing

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useful is taught is certainly not an American definition at the threshold of the twentieth century. Since the university, therefore, has become an institution where any person can secure instruction in any study, must we not have all kinds of ladders, or else one remarkably flexible extension-ladder up which any person can climb into any window of the university? We have provided in our public-school system for every educational demand that has so far arisen with the single exception of the demand for commercial education. Even that has already been met in part in the public school, and it is inconceivable that it alone shall be excluded when all other literary, technical, and professional fields are freely admitted.

If we grant that the public-school system is to provide a commercial education for the country, we immediately meet the

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question, Shall this provision be made through the addition of new courses in the schools already existing, or by the erection of new and special schools? The answer which this country has given so far to every question of this kind that has been raised is, that there must be one democratic

school where all branches of study meet as peers, and to which students with all tastes and aptitudes may come and find adequate provision for their needs and aspirations. We have done more than any other country in the world to break down the old notion of an aristocracy of learning, the notion that some studies are holy and sacred, and some others, which perhaps more vitally concern human progress, are common and unclean. We have inserted into our university, into our college, into our secondary-school program of studies every new science which has arisen to enrich or beautify human life. It would certainly seem strange if we were now to reverse this time-honored policy. To classify different subjects of study into humanistic, realistic, technical, business, manual training, and so on, and then upon this theorist's dream to erect a separate and distinct institution for each of the supposedly separate and distinct lines of human development, is intellectually undemocratic; it is

more than that, it is politically undemocratic. It is the method which has been followed in Germany and, to a large extent, in England, France, and the other European countries. To take the most striking example, Germany, anyone at all familiar with conditions there will realize that it is only the graduate of the classical gymnasium who has the stamp of intellectual aristocracy upon him. Those who go to the other schools are regarded as of distinctly lower social rank. Our universities and colleges have already definitely arrayed themselves upon the side of the American and democratic solution of the question; witness the various higher courses in commerce and politics which have sprung up within the last few years. The chief legitimate argument against the incorporation of commercial courses into the existing secondary schools is based upon two considerations which deserve attention. The first is that as a new subject commercial education will not attract public attention unless it is concretely embodied in a centrally located, magnificently equipped high school of its own. A great commercial high school all by itself is, in other words, to be a standing object lesson to the community. And the second reason, closely correlated with this, is that if the commercial courses are introduced into the existing high schools, which are, for the most part, strongly classical in their tendencies, the commercial courses will meet with opposition from the principal and from most of the teachers, that pupils will consequently be discouraged from taking them, that they will be slighted if any department of the school is slighted, and that the department of commercial education will not have a fair field and no favor.

As to having one splendid centrally located institution which shall serve as an object-lesson in the community, that sounds rather fine in theory, but what will its result be, practically, in a great city like Chicago or New York? Chicago today has some sixteen high schools, so that no boy or girl in even the most remote part of the city is at so great a distance from some school as to make the physical difficulties of attendance any

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considerable barrier. Such education as the high school affords is brought to the doors of all. A central institution would be simply an institution which was removed far away from the doors of all. The physical difficulties and actual expense in money of attendance would be in many cases sufficient to prevent the very students who ought to have its advantages from securing them. The theory of the high school is that it is the people's college. Every college draws chiefly from its immediate environment, so does every university, so do the high schools. It seems, therefore, to be opposed to every ground upon which high schools are maintained to locate one branch of what we agreed to recognize as legitimate high-school work in a distant building, far from the greater part of the population. Moreover, such a policy is manifestly impossible in smaller communities where but one institution of high-school rank can be maintained.

As to the theory that the commercial courses would not get a fair show in the existing high schools, I have this to say: Such

an assumption is very nearly an insult to the fair-mindedness, progressiveness, intelligence, and public spirit of the high-school principals and teachers of "A FAIR SHOW," this country. I have myself visited a number of

high schools where the principal is a classical scholar and a thorough believer in classical training, and yet where a thorough commercial course is maintained, evidently standing on a wholly self-respecting and generally respected basis, obviously with the full sympathy and hearty approval of the principal. Only a very small minority of the high-school principals of today in these great states of ours have survived to us from the paleolithic age. Moreover, it is, I believe, an absolutely unjustifiable imputation against classical training to assume that it should so bias those who have enjoyed its benefits that they are incapable of taking a sympathetic and fair attitude toward the pressing problems of the day. By far the majority of those who are leading in all the lines of education, scientific, commercial, professional, have been classically trained; and unless the whole supposition, the whole theory of classical culture as a liberalizing

influence has been and is totally and absolutely wrong; unless all the progress which has been made in the past has been made in spite of the educators, then we are not justified in assuming that commercial education will have no chance in our existing high schools because, forsooth, a considerable number of our high-school principals and teachers are classical scholars. It is time that the classical teachers rose in armed resistance against the continued imputation to them of such narrowness, bigotry, and intolerance. It might have been true of classical men two hundred years ago, but it is not true of the graduates of our great classical universities and colleges today.

The proper solution of this part of the problem is to incorporate commercial courses as a part of the program of studies in every high school, so far as the means provided by the public permit. The abolition of clearly differentiated courses is proceeding very rapidly in the high schools, as it has practically reached completion in the colleges and universities. The ideal and the real high-school program of tomorrow and the day after tomorrow will consist of courses of study which shall include in addition to all that is already there, such branches as commercial geography, history of industries, money and banking, transportation, and the like, from which program the individual student may and shall select, with the advice and coöperation of parents and teachers, a curriculum which may be purely classical, or purely scientific, or purely commercial, or which may include a few commercial studies along with a preponderating influence of the older culture studies, but which shall in each case, as nearly as may be, suit the special needs of the individual in question. The movement toward differentiating high schools in our large cities has already gone too far; it is undemocratic, un-American, unpedagogical. By what right shall we say to the children in the south part of the city that they may attend a classical high school? to the children on the north that they may attend a scientific high school? to the children on the east that they may attend a manual-training high school? and to the children on the

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west that they may attend a commercial high school? We have been a century trying to abolish sectionalism in politics, let us not spend the next century building up sectionalism in education!

This problem is essentially the old one of, Which was first, the chicken or the egg? Applied to our question, it resolves itself into this: Shall we wait to establish commercial courses until we have a supply of trained teachers, or shall we establish the courses and run the risk of their being discredited because teachers are not prepared to teach them properly? We have the history of scientific instruction in secondary schools as a warning beacon; a great wave of enthusiasm for scientific study swept over this country some years ago, and nearly every school put in biology, or physics, or chemistry, or all of them and more too, with inadequate equipment, imperfect conceptions of the nature of the work and teachers with no special scientific training. The result was that scientific teaching in the secondary schools was discredited, put upon the defensive, and for a time greatly crippled and hampered. Yet, today in spite of that period of panic, there is no more prosperous branch of education in the country than the scientific. Which comes first, supply or demand? Is it at all likely, as a practical question, that an ample supply of special teachers in commercial geography, history of industries, transportation, and such new subjects, will be developed before an obvious market is established? On the other hand, have we not already at hand the apparatus for rapidly equipping teachers in these new branches as the demand arises? Our teachers are exceedingly adaptable. We have teachers' colleges, extension courses, and above all, summer courses in which a capable teacher may go a long way toward supplying special preparation needed for some new duty to be undertaken. Further than that, we have colleges of commerce and politics in our universities which are bound to attract a number of students who prefer teaching to commercial life. Then, too, in many institutions we have schools of law, and preparatory to

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COME FROM**

these schools of laws there are special courses in college in politics, economics, sociology, and in other higher commercial branches. In conversation with a professor of law in such an institution not long ago, he said that he welcomed with enthusiasm the prospective general establishment of commercial courses in secondary schools as affording a career for many law-school graduates who were well fitted by their preliminary college studies and their law training for such teaching, and who were best adapted for the life of a teacher and would prefer it to the life of a lawyer at the bar. If we raise the question whether we shall introduce these courses gradually or all at once, the answer is sure to be according to local conditions. It may be granted that a grand, monumental school is better adapted to the complete introduction of commercial courses, will better facilitate the springing of the commercial school full-panoplied into action, than will the introduction of such courses into our regular high-school program. But is there any legitimate objection to the introduction of such courses gradually, adding one to another as the results justify and as the demand requires? It will certainly be easier to secure one good commercial teacher in one or two special lines than half a dozen. Teachers will be found as they are needed, not as good as they ought to be at first, but they will not be developed at all unless they are needed, for nature in the physical world and in the world of human activity has never been accused of evolving organs to meet a non-existent environment.

In presenting these suggestions, my purpose has been to draw special attention to some of the very definite problems of organization which immediately present themselves

**FILL IN THE
CHASM
BETWEEN
EDUCATION
AND LIFE**

to the practical organizer when he comes to consider this question, and to indicate lines which, in my judgment, will lead to fruitful results. It seems

to me that the day is past when one who discusses this question sincerely and earnestly is in danger of being reproached with mere utilitarianism and of being exiled beyond the pale of true and high educational thought. It is surely high

time that the gulf between theory and practice, the chasm between the utilitarian and the cultural, the yawning abyss between the liberal and the technical, the spatial void between education and life, should be not merely bridged over, but filled in. It is time to recognize that education is not only preparation for life, but that it is life ; that the life that now is is the life that shall be ; that what the children are in the schools, that they will remain when they grow up. We have had far too many imaginary dead lines in education. The world is not all mind, life is not all discipline, and it is time here and now for the educator to accept fully and practice highly the doctrine that to him nothing that is human is common or unclean.

CHARLES H. THURBER

THE PROBLEM OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

THE American common school system is the product of circumstances and forces, of which many are peculiar to this continent, so that it differs in many essential particulars from the educational institutions of the countries of Europe. From the date of its first organization it has exerted a powerful influence upon society and has done much to determine the trend of our civilization and give it progressive force. It has been a leading agency in the dissemination of knowledge and in advancing the intelligence of the masses, but it has gone further than this, for it has come to recognize, to some extent at least, that its true function is the formation of character and the development of the self-activity of the child. From the primitive state and crude methods of the last century it has developed into a complex yet remarkably elastic organization, and has shown itself to be possessed of great powers of adaptability to widely varying environments and demands. From an institution without fixed form, definite ideals, or a proper apprehension of its own functions, it has differentiated into a highly perfected system with an elaborate machinery and a long formulary of principles to be observed and ends to be attained. Very much of this progress has been well considered and wholesome, but too many of its processes have been artificial, looking toward perfection of technique rather than toward substantial growth.

In view of such radical progress it seems strange that one function of school life, and that easily the most important and influential of all, should apparently have been overlooked and permitted to remain upon practically the basis of a hundred years ago. I refer to what is called school government, or the principles and methods by which the student body is controlled. While the great doctrine of Froebel dominates in other departments of school life it has not been recognized here. Elsewhere the self-active powers of the child are discovered and conserved, here

they are largely ignored. It has been and is the practice to submit the pupil to the authority of a master rather than to seek to develop in him the power of self-control. Although the rod and the strap have been quite generally abolished, the old autocratic principle is still in force. In the midst of a democratic community children are still submitted to a tyrannical form of government whose object, real if not professed, is to make of them unreasoning subjects, rather than intelligent and independent members of a self-governing community.

The first step in a great educational renaissance was taken when the genius of the present age enunciated the principle that education is not alone preparation for life, as Herbert Spencer said, but that it is life, and that in the fullest sense. This simple conception is profoundly significant. When it is understood with all it implies it must be recognized as the most pregnant utterance in the educational history of the world. It not only enlarges the educational field and expands its horizon but, in its direct application to the present situation, its whole tendency is nothing less than revolutionary. In the past the policy of our educational systems has been one of isolation. They have calmly, if not contemptuously, disregarded the claims of the busy world and have drawn the line sharply against the intrusion of all so-called practical ideas. Amidst the superabundant life of this restless age they have cherished the cloistered seclusion of mediæval monasticism. In the light of a new century they can no longer maintain their sequestered position, but must recognize the fact that their work is not in the realm of pure intelligence alone and that there is no part of the world's legitimate activity which should not also become a part of their function. They must cease to be microcosms and must enlarge their boundaries and expand their activities until they become broad and sympathetic enough to include all the interests of human life.

Teachers are slowly and surely coming to see that there are other lessons for them to teach which are not less important than those contained in text-books and courses of study, and that, while the intellect must be trained, the child must also be brought into a state of conscious rectitude in which he will find

himself in harmony with the great moral and social forces which control the world's life. He must be taught not only to know but also to act. Intelligence in the individual is of no special value to the world unless it projects itself into society as an active and beneficent force. The scholastic conception of "learning for learning's sake" is fast giving way to the nobler ideal of learning as a means of acquiring greater usefulness and truer happiness, both individual and social. The world today does not want men of scholarly minds and great stores of knowledge unless their sympathies are broadened thereby and their augmented powers are employed for the benefit of humanity. Modern civilization demands that the schools turn out something more than mere scholars. Their graduates must be men and women of power who shall be able to deal successfully with the great problems of the day.

The ultimate aim of all school work should be the acquisition of power, not intellectual power alone, but ethical and social as well. The old saying that "knowledge is power" is, after all, only a half truth, for it is not and never can be power until it enters into the life of the children and becomes an instrumentality in educating and developing his will power. Information alone will not direct conduct, nor will merely intellectual instruction rectify the will power and teach the child to guide his actions by proper ethical motives. In order to develop this power in a child, he must be broadly informed, his intellect must be trained, and he must be led to form high moral standards and ideals and consciously to control his activities by them. His social consciousness must be awakened and he must be made aware of the duties and responsibilities which his heritage of world citizenship entails upon him. Here, then, is the broad field which the public schools sooner or later must occupy and upon their successful solution of the problems thus presented rest the destinies of America and the welfare of mankind. If these ideals are to be attained the public schools must be reformed along at least three general lines.

1. They must be made distinctly and broadly American. The success of a republican form of government must depend upon

the intelligence of the masses of the people. An illiterate and vicious community is not fitted to govern itself, for the governing power develops in parallel lines with the growth of intelligence and morality. Therefore a public school, whose function is to develop intelligence, give training in political duties, and inculcate morality among the youth of the land, becomes essential to the existence and perpetuation of free institutions. But it is impossible for a school to fit its pupils for citizenship in a community with whose principles of government its organization is not in harmony. If pupils are submitted to the dictates of an absolute authority, they will, by so much, fail to be fitted to discharge the duties of American citizenship, no matter how carefully they have been instructed in them, because they will not have been brought into harmony with their spirit in their daily lives. If a school is in a democratic community it must be organized and controlled in accordance with democratic principles. This comes so near to being a truism that it is difficult to understand why it was not long ago recognized and adopted as a principle of action in American schools. Yet it is true today that what may be called the political constitution of the schools is not in harmony with the American idea. There is arbitrary authority in the place of intelligent self-control, and enforced obedience to a person, in the place of a voluntary obedience to a principle. From our system of school government every trace of the democratic principle seems to have been carefully excluded. The moment he enters the schoolhouse the pupil leaves behind all his rights as an inchoate American citizen and becomes the unreasoning subject of an authority from which he has neither appeal nor redress.

It is not maintained that this authority is not in general wisely exerted or that the habits of obedience acquired by it are not wholesome; but since it is obviously not the form of government, which was instituted by our forefathers and which dominates our civilization, it must be adjudged wrong in principle even though its ultimate result may not be subject to a serious criticism from an individualistic standpoint. If education is life it seems evident that the institution whose business it is to

convert ignorant youth into intelligent citizens cannot differ materially in its constitution from the political and social environment in which it is placed.

If this is a correct principle then it must be admitted that the present organization of our school system is defective and should be corrected. Under a new constitution the students should be recognized as citizens of the school community with the rights, privileges, and responsibilities, which such citizenship elsewhere implies. And with this must be inculcated a recognition of the great truth that the ultimate source of authority is within, not without; that external authority exists only because the higher authority is not exercised, or is not exercised wisely; and that as soon as this inward authority demonstrates its ability and willingness to control individual activity outward domination can be dispensed with. This is not only to be taught as a great principle of human life but it must be put into actual practice by such an arrangement of the daily routine of the school that the children may be educated into a capacity to govern their own activities in accordance with the laws which, as citizens, they have had some voice in making. This does not mean that they are to be emancipated from authority. On the contrary, the new authority will be stricter and more implacable than the old, for a principle is more uncompromising than a person, and a community than an individual. Moreover, an obedience that is reasoning and voluntary is far higher in character than one that is enforced by whatsoever means. Such a course of procedure is fully in harmony with the fundamental principles of American citizenship, and pupils thus governed will be prepared to take up the duties of a larger citizenship and to discharge them with wisdom and discrimination. Thus the passage from school to life will not be in the nature of an abrupt transition, but will be merely an expansion of a familiar environment and an enlargement of already recognized duties. When this is done the schools will both instruct their pupils in the fundamental principles of republican government and really train them for citizenship, and, while conveying knowledge, they will assist in the development of that knowledge into facility and power.

2. The schools must be made distinctly social in their nature and conduct. By this I mean that they must recognize and cultivate the social instincts of the child. The growing complexities of modern civilization have multiplied the duties which the individual owes to the community. In these days more than ever before it is true that no man can live unto himself. Whether he will or not he must influence his fellow men and be influenced by them. Every detail of his daily life is modified by his social environment, and it is coming to pass in this age of absorption in business and professional cares, when the tendency is more and more towards the isolation of the individual from active participation in those movements which tend to promote the welfare of the masses, that there is an increasingly insistent demand that the rising generation be educated into a better understanding of the laws which control the development of society and community life; that their sympathies with their fellow men be quickened and broadened; and that they become more responsive to the demands which humanity is making upon them. One of the proud boasts of Americanism is that all men are born free and equal; that we have no titled classes, no aristocracy to oppress the poor. And yet there are growing up in our midst social demarcations, which, by the erection of artificial barriers and the creation of class antagonisms, are assailing the integrity of our institutions and which, if allowed full sway, will inevitably reduce society to anarchy and ruin. These tendencies are so powerful, yet at the same time so subtle, that they cannot be checked by legal action or governmental interference. External remedies are necessarily useless. It is only by the growth of a new spirit among the people, a broader culture, and a better understanding of social rights and responsibilities, that these destructive tendencies can be successfully met, and there is but one agency which is calculated both by its aims and its organization to cope with them. What the church, the home, and the government cannot do, the public school both can and will do.

In order to solve these questions effectually it is necessary to recognize the school as a community, a small section of

society, whose organization and controlling principles are not essentially different from those which prevail in the world outside. Theoretically this truth is generally admitted, but in the organization and daily conduct of the school it is almost universally ignored. There is no reason either in its aim or function why a school should isolate itself from the community in which it is placed, or form for itself a constitution at variance with that which controls society outside. If cleanliness, courtesy, honesty, and a due respect for the rights of others are demanded of all members of society, the fact of membership in a school should not convey entire or partial immunity from such demands. The average citizen requires no policeman to secure his observance of these rules, but rather regulates his conduct by the ordinary conventions of society without the intervention of an arbitrary command. This tendency of humanity is one of the inherited powers, which passes from generation to generation with the increasing force which a refining civilization gives to it. And it is time for the schools to recognize this fact and to substitute a rational system of administration for the arbitrary and unpedagogical one which has prevailed in the past. The great laws of society must not be suspended or superseded by a code of petty rules, but the same duties and rights which prevail in society should prevail in school, and precisely for the same reason. It is only by so doing that a school becomes actually a part or phase of the life of the world, and connects itself with the vital interests of men.

Two things are necessary to bring a child into a right attitude towards any law : first, that he be taught its purpose and operation, and second, that he be led to adopt it voluntarily as a rule of his life. When a rule is laid down arbitrarily and obedience is demanded or forced, a fundamental law of human nature is violated. So we govern slaves and unreasoning animals, but not freeborn men, yet autocratic authority has been at the basis of most systems of school control in the past. The child has not been brought to the "tree of knowledge of good and evil" and induced to eat thereof, but he has been confronted with the stern admonition, "this shalt thou do, and that thou shalt not do,"

or else, which is worse, his natural freedom has been allowed to degenerate into license, and he has grown up with but little respect for either law or authority.

The social training which a school should give cannot be formulated into a body of laws to be enforced by authority, but it must rather be a natural outgrowth of the association of students with each other under the guidance and inspiration of wise and sympathetic teachers. Thus and thus only can the social instincts of the child be rectified and liberalized and his conduct become self-regulated in accordance with the highest standards.

3. The school must give adequate moral instruction or its work will be worse than useless, and this question of special and systematic training in morals has been a most troublesome one. The statement is sometimes made that the public schools, if not positively immoral, are at least negative and colorless in their influence. From the very nature of the case this cannot be true, so far as their intellectual work is concerned, for every task performed and every lesson learned is a moral conquest and consequently on this side of its work the influence of the school must be enlightening and uplifting. Yet there is undoubtedly too much ground for the statement, for these results are too often nullified or perverted by weakness and failure in other directions. It is too true that the schools have been unconsciously neglecting the most potent instrumentality within their own constitution for ethical teaching and training. We are apt to forget that morals cannot be taught adequately by precept and from books. Our first parents learned to distinguish between good and evil, but that knowledge did not keep Cain from killing his brother or Jacob from deceiving his father. It is not sufficient for the child to be able to distinguish between right and wrong. Most men in this day and generation are born into the world with such an instinctive knowledge. Conscience as well as social consciousness is an inheritance of civilized humanity. The real point of weakness is not in the intellect but in the will, and this must be educated and trained with the full understanding that the conditions of such training are not

to be found in books or codes of laws. A moral man is one who is possessed of conscious rectitude, who, knowing the right, deliberately chooses to do it. Within such a man there must be something more than intelligence; there must be a subtle power, the guiding genius of his life, the supreme endowment of humanity, which shall restrain him from doing wrong and constrain him to do good. It is this power which the schools must discover and afford an opportunity and field for its exercise.

If morality is a function of the will rather than of the intellect, of life rather than of thought, the conclusion is irresistible that the active moral training of a school must be carried on principally by means of its system of government, which, if rightly administered, is more productive of good and far-reaching results than any other phase of school work. Its narrowest and least important function is that of keeping order in the schoolroom from day to day. Yet in actual practice this is too often the whole of its scope and the limit of its possibilities, while, if its true aim is understood and its tremendous power in shaping human life, this detail becomes almost trivial in comparison. Any system of government which fails to recognize and act on its possibilities in this direction is unmoral, and it becomes distinctly immoral when it converts natural freedom into bondage and forbids the intelligent exercise of the powers of self-control. The child who is compelled to subject himself during his school career to an arbitrary authority and who learns to submit his actions to the test of a body of rules rather than to that of right and wrong simply, will have gained a false ideal of life and will find himself at a loss for a proper standard of conduct when he goes out into the world where the set rules and regulations under which he has become accustomed to live are no longer in force. If he does not go far astray from the paths of morality, he will at least have to reconstruct his ideals and habituate himself to an environment radically different from that by which he has been surrounded at school.

The so-called "self-government" scheme is only an attempt to realize in the actual organization and conduct of the school this newly formulated doctrine of the life phases and values of

education. Its purpose is to make methods of instruction and administration conform to the great and active principles of human life as they appear in political, social, and ethical institutions. It does not by any means imply an abdication of authority on the part of school officers, nor the granting to students of any privileges which are not entirely consistent with their highest interests. If they are given liberty, it is only the liberty inherent in American citizenship. If they are accorded privileges, they are only those that are characteristic of our social organization. When rightly administered this system cannot result in license, but it must rather induce an added respect for constituted authority and a more ready and perfect, because a reasoning and voluntary, obedience. Moreover it gives an added dignity to school membership, an increased sense of social and moral responsibilities, a truer manliness and womanliness, and a deeper and more sustained enthusiasm in the discharge of the daily duties of life.

A close observation of the working of the system has revealed a great many interesting results, some of which were hoped for and some of which were wholly unexpected. Perhaps the most noteworthy result has been the increasing domination of school life by the better element of the students. Hitherto a noisy and disorderly minority has too often controlled the sentiment of the school, while the better element has failed to assert itself. Now the development of the sense of individual responsibility, moral, social, and civic, is shown in the rectifying and strengthening of public sentiment. The better element of the school is coming to recognize its power and its responsibility for the exercise of that power, and this recognition is working a noiseless but complete revolution in the general conception of student honor. The false standards of honor, which have been cherished by students of past generations are giving place to a more healthy conception of individual responsibility to society, and many evils which have seemed so firmly fixed in school life as to be ineradicable are unable to hold their own in the presence of this new public sentiment and are being eliminated without a protest. This new sentiment is so powerful and so penetrating

in its influence that it practically controls or directs all the activities of the school, until there is not a function so remote that it is not rectified and invigorated by it. It regulates the order, restrains boisterousness and impropriety, induces courtesy, dignified conduct, and respect for associates and superiors, and inspires a more earnest spirit of study and inquiry, and finally promotes a warmer sympathy and a more helpful connection between teacher and pupil.

Although no attempt has yet been made to extend the application of the system to the class room, its direct influence is strongly felt here, as well as in various study rooms whose proper control has been a great problem in past years. Where formerly much of the time and attention of the teacher had to be spent in maintaining order, now this difficult problem has been almost entirely eliminated. There are very few cases of disorder and inattention and the teacher is thus enabled to give all his thought and attention to the actual work of instruction, a result which would fully justify any departure even if it had nothing else to recommend it. It can hardly be doubted that, in addition to all these advantages, the schools will be doing much more than at present to build up a pure, honest, and intelligent citizenship. Pupils who have been given such training as this must have higher and truer ideals, must understand better their relations to society and government, and must be better fitted to discharge the duties and responsibilities which American citizenship imposes upon them.

Perhaps these experiments and investigations have not established a new pedagogical principle, but they have at least shown that an old principle may be widely expanded and made to control in the administration of a school as well as in the actual work of instruction. Moreover, this new application has so profoundly influenced a most vital function of the school as practically to work a revolution in the entire school economy. The fact must be recognized that, while all other phases of school life have shown material progress, school government has been stationary, nor has yielded, in principle at all and in practice but slightly, to the influence of the "new education." The

time as come now when a reorganization of the school is necessary, and this necessity is becoming more and more generally recognized.

The closing years of the nineteenth century are witnessing a remarkable series of movements in the educational world. Never before has the general public taken so much interest in questions pertaining to the education of the young, and never before have teachers been so earnestly seeking for new light on the serious problems with which they are confronted daily. Great movements are already beginning which are destined to revolutionize the American school system and there is no more fruitful field of study for those who are interested in really vital educational questions than this of School Government.

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FREE HIGH SCHOOLS FOR RURAL PUPILS

HUXLEY's famous ideal of the free-school system, a ladder from gutter to university, has come near to realization in most of our American states. The free school's triumph over the fee school is all but universal ; and we tell with just pride how even the child of poverty can make his way to the highest places in scholarship. But one part of the ladder still remains defective, and for rural communities absent altogether.

The American free-school system offers to practically all the people everywhere free instruction for children in the elementary grades. If the people are fortunate enough to live in cities or villages, their children have also free instruction in the secondary grades, since in all sections of the country free high schools are maintained in and for the cities. But the free-school opportunities of the country boy and girl have generally come to an abrupt end with the elementary course. True, the state universities have offered them college instruction if they could somehow climb over the gap between the grammar school and the college.

One by one the remaining imperfections in our free-school system come up for consideration and remedy. In their turn, we Americans attack our public problems in what seems to us the order of their importance and need. To some of us this question of secondary education for rural pupils has seemed to wait beyond its rightful time. But its hour has struck at last, and it is safe to say that few questions of educational administration have been receiving more general attention than this one, within the last few years. This attention has, however, been given with but little ostentation ; and it will not be strange if some should express surprise to hear it ranked among the prominent educational problems of the day. Each state seems to have attacked the problem in its own way and with little regard to what other states were doing. The movement has received its impetus less from the

great educators of the nation than from the teachers and people of the several states. Thus, almost unknown to each other, impelled by inward conditions rather than by theories impressed from without, a dozen states have been seeking some way to fill in for their rural pupils the high-school rounds of the free-school ladder.

Eleven years ago in the council of the National Educational Association there was presented and discussed a valuable report upon the opportunities of the rural population for higher education. The report bore most directly, of course, upon college preparation, and took the form of an argument for county high schools. A great deal of valuable information was collected bearing upon the conditions at that time in the different states. That inquiry and report no doubt had its influence in bringing about the present remarkable interest in the problem before us.

The time has certainly come for a thorough study of the present status of this movement. The editor of the *SCHOOL REVIEW* has invited the writer to undertake on behalf of this journal an investigation of the conditions prevailing in the different states in reference to this matter at the close of the century. To this inquiry the present article may be considered a prefatory statement. A brief preliminary survey of the subject at this time will no doubt interest many readers, and perhaps facilitate their co-operation in the fuller investigation contemplated.

Quite various are the plans adopted or advocated in different states. I shall undertake to describe briefly the more important and typical.

1. *Union high schools*, maintained jointly by neighboring rural districts, often with transportation of pupils at public cost. The districts thus uniting for high-school purposes may be either a group of country districts only, or a village district with several adjacent country districts. A number of states have laws authorizing such union high schools, and localities adopting them have been greatly benefited; but the total territory thus organized is so small a part of such states as to make this plan alone seem inadequate to meet the great general demand for

free rural secondary education. There seems to be no reason however, why this plan should not be authorized and encouraged by every state for localities which prefer it.

2. *Township high schools.*—States in which the township is the unit for taxation and school purposes are gradually adopting laws permitting townships to establish high schools at convenient central locations. This plan is essentially a form of the preceding, and the remarks made in that connection apply here. An interesting variation of this plan contemplates the sale of all the school sites and houses in the township, and the establishment of a central graded school including a high school, with provision for the transportation of pupils at public expense.

An admirable investigation and report on the transportation of rural pupils at public expense has recently been made by Professor A. A. Upham of the State Normal School, Whitewater, Wis. It has been printed as a bulletin of information by the state superintendent of Wisconsin from whom it can no doubt be obtained. Professor Upham's summary is as follows:

From the reports, both printed and written, I gather the following summary of advantages accruing from the plan of transportation of rural school children at public expense:

1. The health of the children is better, the children being less exposed to stormy weather, and avoiding sitting in damp clothing.
2. Attendance is from 50 to 150 per cent. greater, more regular, and of longer continuance, and there is neither tardiness nor truancy.
3. Fewer teachers are required, so better teachers may be secured and better wages paid.
4. Pupils work in graded schools and both teachers and pupils are under systematic and closer supervision.
5. Pupils are in better schoolhouses, where there is better heating, lighting, and ventilation, and more appliances of all kinds.
6. Better opportunity is afforded for special work in music, drawing, etc.
7. Cost in nearly all cases is reduced. Under this is included cost and maintenance of school buildings, apparatus, furniture, and tuition.
8. School year is often much longer.
9. Pupils are benefited by widened circle of acquaintance and the culture resulting therefrom.
10. The whole community is drawn together.
11. Public barges used for children in the daytime may be used to transport their parents to public gatherings in the evenings, to lecture courses, etc.
12. Transportation makes possible the distribution of mail throughout the whole township daily.

13. Finally, by transportation the farm again as of old becomes the ideal place in which to bring up children, enabling them to secure the advantages of centers of population and spend their evenings and holiday time in the country in contact with nature and plenty of work, instead of idly loafing about town.

We are in the midst of an industrial revolution. The principle of concentration has touched our farming, our manufacturing, our mining, and our commerce. There are those who greatly fear the outcome. There were those who prophesied disaster and even the destruction of society on the introduction of labor-saving machinery. We have adjusted ourselves to the new conditions thus introduced. Most of us believe that we shall again adjust ourselves to the new industrial conditions. The changes in industrial and social conditions make necessary similar changes in educational affairs. The watchword of today is concentration, the dominant force is centripetal. Not only for the saving of expense but for the better quality of the work must we bring our pupils together.

3. *County high schools.*—In most of the central and western states the county is the chief corporate unit of local government and taxation. Several of these states have provided by law for high schools under county support and control. Much has been said in favor of this plan. Reference has already been made to the argument made in its favor at the Nashville meeting of the National Educational Association. There seems to be good reason why every state should authorize such schools for counties where the problem can be solved best in this way. But so far, notwithstanding favorable legislation in a number of states, it appears that very few such schools are actually in successful operation; and in a state which relies upon this method alone generations will probably pass before any general extension of free high-school privileges to country pupils will be realized. The chief difficulties in getting such schools started seem to be:

- a.* Rivalry of cities or towns for location; each opposing the plan if the probable location would be at a rival town.
- b.* The appearance of duplicating expensive plants at the same location—the city where the school is located already having, as a rule, a good high school of its own.
- c.* Inaccessibility from remote parts of the county.
- d.* The additional difficulty, which results from those already mentioned as well as from other causes, of securing a vote for the establishment of the county high school and for the special taxation required.

4. *State aid for city high schools*, approved by state educational authorities, upon condition of providing free tuition. This plan has solved the problem for many parts of Minnesota, and proves very acceptable there, where such city high schools in all parts of the state are thus open to all comers. This method tends to unify the high-school system, bringing these schools partly under state control and securing a closer articulation with the institutions of higher education. It has lately been adopted in Pennsylvania and other states, and is certain to be an important factor in working out the problem under discussion.

5. *Free attendance of country pupils at existing public high schools*, under legislation providing for the approval of such schools and compensation for the districts maintaining them. This plan has been repeatedly suggested and discussed. It has been in operation for some years in a very successful form in Nebraska, where the law provides for tuition fees at a fixed rate, to be paid by the county in which the pupil resides. The Nebraska law encountered technical constitutional difficulties at first, but was reenacted immediately by the legislature without material alteration. It may still be found weak in some technical points since the lawmakers are blazing a new path without precedents; but its popularity and success insure its continuance under substantially its present form. The law includes in substance the following provisions:

a. Free attendance of non-resident pupils at any approved high school in the same county, or in a different county if it be the nearest to the pupil's place of residence.

b. The state department of education determines annually what schools are properly equipped and subject to such attendance. This provision has enabled the state department to exercise a most helpful influence upon the equipment and management of the high schools.

c. Tuition fees at the fixed rate of three dollars per month are paid by the county in which the pupil resides.

d. Pupils must have the county superintendent's certificate that they have completed satisfactorily the course of study prescribed by the state department for the elementary grades. This clause has been found to supply an exceedingly valuable lever for grading and improving the country schools. Thus the law incidentally tones up the whole state system of education, preparing for higher education, regulating and strengthening the high schools, and stimulating the work in the rural schools.

We have endeavored to outline the various plans which seem to promise solutions for our problem of free secondary instruction for rural pupils. Two or more of these may be and frequently are employed together in the same state. Indeed, no one method alone can be considered as fully sufficient, although some of the plans enumerated have seemed, as for example in Minnesota and Nebraska, to provide almost immediately the means for free secondary instruction for any ambitious country pupil throughout an entire state. There seems to be no good reason why several of these plans should not be authorized by law in each state, in order to secure a solution best fitted to the needs of each locality, and yet offer immediate relief in some form for every ambitious and competent country student.

That the movement is one of importance scarcely needs argument. Many who may become the choice spirits of the next generation are hidden away undeveloped among these country children. "What could not Massachusetts afford to pay," remarked Dr. Harris, the United States Commissioner of Education, in a recent conversation, "to bring a Daniel Webster out of rural obscurity." The situation is of course modified somewhat by the low tuition rates charged in many sections in high schools, private normal schools and the preparatory departments of colleges. But with equal truth it could be said that private enterprise would partly provide for elementary education, also, were there no public provision. It may also be urged that the cost of tuition is small compared with that of board and other expenses which the pupils must bear. The answer is, first, the item of tuition will in many cases turn the scale in favor of high-school attendance; and in the second place, a free school, not free food

or clothing, is the American ideal. Here we draw the line between state and family functions. Certainly all arguments favorable to public high schools in cities, would have equal force when applied to the extension of free high-school privileges to the country districts.

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THE LARGER HIGH SCHOOL

THE thoughtful student of the times must recognize that we are now entering on a new era in high-school education. The high school of five years ago was not the same as the better high school of today, and that which is today is but the intimation of the greater and grander mission to which the high school is readjusting itself. Then, a privileged few pupils, through courses of study of limited differentiation and opportunity, had recognition of their wants. The manner of instruction was typified by the so-called laboratory where the instructor performed marvelous feats on a few pieces of costly apparatus for the curiosity and amusement of the class. The superfine air-pump or electrical machine at other times was carefully locked away from plebeian touch or else became the demolished object of a center rush when the instructor was out of the room. The hours of study were abnormal, the regular school session being appropriated largely by the teacher, the immature pupil working late into the night to accommodate the talkative teacher during the day.

All of this not more than five years ago, or at most not more than ten. But since then there has been tremendous advancement. The old-time school man, who, hostile to any change, felt he served his generation best by sitting as an executor on some bequeathed educational estate, is arousing himself to the spirit of the times. The aristocracy of the pupils who can is giving way more and more to the democracy of those who may. In the days of glorious Greece, it is said, "every free man stood on the backs of nine slaves." To continue the metaphor of President David Starr Jordan, "part of the achievement of the time consisted in keeping the nine men down that the tenth man might be raised aloft." This, true in civic Greece, has also been too much true in education. The high school has been constructed too largely for those who knew they were predestinated for college graduation and for a limited kind of professional life.

The attendance has been proportionately small because the great common people knew there was little conservation of the great economic demands of their own lives and never reached the possibilities of the college because discouraged they turned away from the narrow threshold of the average high school. Much, much has been done to carefully grade the high school and to elevate it into a realm of classical honor; but every attempt, in this country, to raise the standard of the high school has resulted in smaller numbers and has lifted it just that much away from the people.

During the past few years the presence of a large commercial school in a city has demonstrated the fact that the high school has not completely filled its mission. The large educational classes of the Young Men's Christian Associations have added another chapter of the same story. The last annual report of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, showing that in the ten largest cities of the state only one fifth of the pupils of the entire enrollment continued in school long enough to participate in the enjoyment of the high school, is a substantiation of the criticism made by Dr. Washington Gladden twenty years ago. But we are now in the beginning of an era in high school improvement, the greatest factor of which is due to the scientific study of children, emanating from the great throbbing heart of Clark University and giving an enlightened conscience, which is awaking a democratic people to the differentiated demands of life. Following this, and indeed largely correlated with it, is the enormous interest the great woman's club movement is taking in this question. This influence, which the better women of America are bringing to bear on the schools, is simply tremendous. When the woman gets after the man or the school man he would better capitulate; and this he is now doing.

Under influences of this kind the high school of New England is rapidly transforming itself. The magnificent new buildings at Springfield, Holyoke, Fitchburg, Brookline, Newton, Fall River, Pittsfield, and Somerville, with provisions and equipment that would have dwarfed a college fifty years ago, are all intimations of the trend of desire among the people and are

prophetic of a line of high school policy far more comprehensive than that of the school of a few years ago. Just where this will lead us matters not, but it will surely be in the interests of democracy. The high school of the future must and will reach larger numbers than it has ever done in the past. It will be the school of the common people. It will be in touch with all of the demands of life.

Concerning it may be said,

I. *It will be a comprehensive school.*—Doubtless, the classics will still have their large enrollment of numbers; but new elements, under encouragement, will appear in the high school and will call for other departments of training. The purely classical school was, in type, established in mediaeval days when it was taken for granted that the student was to be a clergyman or a gentleman. While this type of school has high merit which cannot be questioned it does not cover the entire field. Others, besides the special classes, are to be educated. The greatest promise in all economic life lies in lifting all the trades and vocations of life into a realm of higher activity and their devotees into the enrichment of personal culture. The great scientific world has opened up so enormously; its practical applications in life and its contributions to the greater productiveness, enrichment, culture and enjoyment of man have so expanded themselves; the methods of scientific study have so improved, and the opportunities for its prosecution are so abundant, that science now stands entitled to a place in the curricula of schools of preëminent importance.

Then there are the Mechanic Arts, to be taught not as a preparation for the trades, but as a higher means in the development of creative faculty. Man often is an imitator, but he should be a creator. The realm of invention is so limitless, the transformation of energy and the extraction of much from little so distinguishing of man above brute, that creative faculty, which most makes man like God, excepting in moral possibility, must have training in the school—not schools for the making of things, but through the making of things for the development of men and women who are to create, to transform and to execute.

So also of the Fine Arts. To see, to hear, to understand, to interpret, to color, to reproduce, to create—these are the possibilities of the school, above all servile imitation and of value in proportion as they reach to such higher level.

Then, there is necessary an acquaintance with certain tools and forms of business life. If bookkeeping, typewriting and stenography are at all necessary to any number of young people, then they have their legitimate place in the high school.

Underlying all these must be adequate provision for the grace and glory of physical health. Parallel with every line of study must be training in the scientific gymnasium, not by exercise once or twice per week, but daily and of regularity. Only as we train young people to the necessity of regular physical exercise will they be keepers of their own health and have the keys to strength in their possession.

So then, all the demands of modern life must have their anticipation in the school. If Professor Dewey's definition is true that the school is "not a preparation for life but life itself," then the school must be as broad as life; and all the educative needs of young people, be such needs in classics, belles-lettres, the humanities, science, industry, and art, must be comprehended in the provisions of the high school.

Doubtless, in this we are all agreed; but I cannot look, excepting with disfavor, on the growing tendency to the segregation into separate schools, the so-called and monopolistic classical school, the English school, the manual-training school, the commercial school, etc., each accommodated in a separate building. The fundamental purposes of all these departments of work so overlap and interchange that they should forever be closely associated. The recognition of special honor accorded one school, and the "depart from hope all ye who enter here" written on the entire surroundings of others, are hostile to that greater democratic spirit which seeks to honor all life and to carry culture into every trade.

The comprehensive school, then, should be a school as broad as life, and it should forever conserve the community of interests that must underlie all the departments of education of younger

life. Preferably such a school should be under one roof and under a single management.

II. *There should be the most liberal opportunity for the election of studies.*—If the student wishes to begin the preparatory work of the classical college, it should be his privilege. If he wishes to enter the polytechnic school, it should be with the most liberal encouragement. If his friend is more decidedly scientific or along the line of the mechanical or domestic arts or the fine arts, or if his needs are for office bookkeeping, typewriting, and stenography, he should find in the school the exact counterpart of his needs, and that under circumstances of the most generous correlation and the greatest ease of readjustment. The course of study has its proper place, but it should be a living, growing thing, of the widest possible adaptation to individual needs. Oh, when shall the programs of our great educational gatherings cease to be filled with the discussion of the necessity of uniform courses of study, uniformity in college entrance requirements and the like! Uniformity is an educational curse which violates every principle of God and nature and should forever be banished from the schools. It matters not for how many different colleges preparation is to be made, the future of the student should be anticipated and find conservation in specific adaptation for his work. Given, the school where the specific wants of the students and not the predilection of the teacher have first consideration, and it is almost as easy to prepare for twenty colleges as for one. But even then, all pupils do not go on to college; and, hence, the differentiation of needs is more pronounced. If the "school is life" and is to be as broad as life, it must fit all of these cases. One school at least has attempted this—perhaps there are many more. There is no hesitation in saying that, if in the course of time five hundred pupils graduate from this school, it will have been possible for these five hundred persons to have come to their graduation through five hundred different courses of study.

This in time does away with the necessity for the careful classification of pupils into classes with intervals one year apart. It does away with the false un-American sentiment that honors the

aristocracy of the college constituency and degrades the honest plebeian life that cannot aspire so high. It opens the doors of the school to the masses and seeks the enrichment of the common man.

The methods of the school that is to be must be largely laboratory methods, adapted for every department of study. The pupil must have opportunity, under direction and encouragement, to do his own work. His rate of progress must be his own. If he can cover the usual course of study in four years, very well. If he can profitably place five years or even six on his work, or if he can do it in three years or even two, it must be his privilege. If he can carry the full course of daily work, so much the better; but, if because of sickness or unusual life demands he can carry only three studies or two or even one, then every principle of educational economy demands he should be given permission to do so. Any system of schools that conserves only the possibilities of certain pupils is a direct perversion of the uses of the people's money. The school must be as broad as life.

III. Again, given its clientage, the school must be responsible for results.—No physician has the right to charge on others the responsibility of an assumed case; and no more right has the teacher to evade the results of inadequate or injudicious school administration. The scholarship record sent in many schools to the home is a measurement of the teacher and not of child. Furthermore, no teacher has the right to permit insurmountable difficulties to accumulate before the student. They must be cleared out of the way as the daily work goes on. To permit difficulties to accumulate until the pupil suddenly finds he is not promoted or must drop out of the school is educationally criminal. Non-promotion! There should never be such a thing. The pupil has a divine right to healthy normal progress, in which the close of the year should make losses no more than any day of the year. His work should be continuous work, with no interruption because of the mechanism of the school. To be non-promoted or to be conditioned and to be discouraged wherewithal, what a reflection on the teacher who assumes the training of a child! The school then must be responsible for results.

IV. The school should be the place for the doing of school work.—I cannot understand how the high school, with all of its generous financial provisions, ever degenerated into an institution where nearly all the hours of session were spent in one prolonged recitation, largely for the detection of delinquencies and for the teacher's benefit, while the growing, adolescent boy or girl was crowded into abnormal hours at home for the doing of work which should have had the best hours of the day. I cannot look with favor on the present general custom which presents a single session for high-school instruction. To require an active pupil to sit largely passive through the long recitation is bad enough indeed; but when this pupil rushes to school in the morning, half fed, because of inadequate time to breakfast, and then drags through five hours of sometimes unrelieved torture, to return home too late for the comfortable meal which others of the family have had, and then to be forced to do desultory study amidst the distracting circumstances of home life or by bad light through many evening hours, the situation, it seems to me, has little apology to offer to an intelligent board of health.

Again, there may be circumstances of home life which limit attendance at the early morning hour and perhaps thereby deny the privileges of high-school education. Even these persons are entitled to consideration.

There was a day when even the church kept open hours only one day of the week and then only at certain hours, while its industrious opponent closed its doors never. We are now entering the era of the institutional church with provision for the masses at almost any hour of the day. The Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Woman's Association, the Christian Union, the Societies of the Catholic Church, the Guilds, are all in exposition of this modern idea. In the same way must the high school come to the realization that its doors must be open during a larger number of hours during the day. Opportunity for favorable study demands it. Laboratory work in every study demands it. Home requirement demands it. Sanitary science demands it. I do not mean that the present high tension school should extend itself over a greater number of hours per day;

but the school must be open to the student; the teacher must be more approachable; the day must be more porous; the pupil must have the school laboratory for his work; the demand for evening study must be discontinued. This in time would transform the entire policy and practice of the school.

V. The high school under the same director and heads of departments, but not necessarily under the same teachers, must be open in the evening as well as during the day.—The fact that a young man or a young woman must work in the mill or store should not deny him or her the opportunity for high school or college instruction. If those who are supported by others are entitled to the city educational provision, certainly they who support others have an equally just claim. Every attempt in this country to open an evening high school has met a response far beyond all expectation. These deserving young people have their claims on the high school. If they cannot come for the day session, the night session must be their privilege. For this teachers should be supplied, but the plan should be a part of the high school and not be relegated to circumstances of unfavorable conditions.

VI. But the present times are making new demands upon the high school.—The broad, generous movement begun in the interest of college extension is transferring itself with larger mission to the domain of the people's college. The tremendous activity in literary club life, particularly among the women, and the results of society and private enterprise, all are making of the high school a follower, where it should have been a leader. I have not time now to discuss the necessity of high-school studies being permitted earlier; but this much is certain, the high school should supplement itself and extend itself to do all the good it can in its community. Better than any other institution, it is prepared to direct all the higher intellectual activities of those who from the homes seek opportunities for directed studies. If graduates of the high school wish to continue certain lines of work; if older persons of neglected or denied past opportunities, but now awakened to the needs and privileges of the hour, come forward for help; if community classes are to be

formed for study in literature, history, economics, art, domestic science, and kindred branches ; then the high school must arise to the privilege of such opportunity, widen its scope of usefulness, and make itself felt in this direction of educational endeavor. This is now being done with glorious results in Brookline, and the good work begun there is extending itself into other places.

Nothing perhaps will do more to improve the quality of the high school and to make public a demonstration of the need of well-trained and capable teachers than this movement which will certainly place the high school and its needs in a highly favorable light before the people.

VII. There is still another department of usefulness before the high school, and that is in the presentation of a systematic course of popular but instructive lectures for the masses.—The great work done in this particular in New York City is very suggestive. The courses of instructive lectures for the industrial classes in Brimingham, Lancaster, and other industrial centers in England, the high success of the Chautauqua gatherings are all indicative of what may be done in this particular. If education can be brought to the masses in this way, then the high school has a wider mission than that of a preparatory or even a finishing school. To be worthy of the enormous sums of money that are now being expended for buildings and equipment, it must rise to the privilege of this great opportunity.

Doubtless this calls for the gradual reconstruction of the high-school teaching force. Their principals must be men who could grace a college presidential chair. The heads of departments must be leaders of the people. The teachers must be prepared to arise to greater usefulness. Perhaps the reflex of all this, in its lifting of the atmosphere and plane of work of the regular high school, will be the best part of the whole movement.

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Such, in brief, is the mission of the coming high school. Nothing in all the realm of American education is more interesting to the student than the development of the high school. Its supplanting the old time-honored and exceedingly useful New England Academy ; the marvelous development, first in the West

and then in the East, until now the high school practically does the work of the college of fifty years ago; the growing change of the college into the university and school for specialized training; these and other evolutions in the growth of American institutions indicate that the high school of today is to become the college of yesterday, and that, utilizing the opportunities brought to its door and creating others for itself, the high school is to become an institution of far wider usefulness as the director of all the higher educational advancement of the great common people. This, then, is my apology for presenting to the reading public this discussion of the Mission of the Larger High School.

PRESTON W. SEARCH

REFORM IN THE GERMAN HIGHER SCHOOLS AND THE REFORM MOVEMENT IN MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

AT a certain number of German gymnasiums and so-called realgymnasiums a thorough reform has been going on for several years tending to change the order of subjects of instruction and to remove the many complaints which are heard in these schools from parents and pupils.

One of the greatest inconveniences now existing is that a father has to decide very early whether he shall devote his son to classical studies or to modern ones. He must make his choice when he is scarcely able to discern his son's abilities—that is, when his son is only ten years old, or even younger. To know a child's inclination for a profession at so tender an age is altogether out of the question. So the father sends the boy, for better or for worse (at a venture), to one of the above named schools, a gymnasium, or a realgymnasium. Should the child fail in his attempts to get on at this school, he is sure to lose at least one precious year, for he will certainly—coming from a gymnasium—not be received in the same class, but in a lower one, and *vice versa*. To avoid this inconveniency, the reformed schools of both kinds have the same plan of teaching for five years, from the sixth to the upper third form.

At the age of fifteen or sixteen years a boy's gifts are clearly developed, and it is then no matter of difficulty for the parents to launch a boy for a certain career in life. In this respect the establishment of reformed schools is, indeed, a progress.

But it is so, too, in another point of view, *i. e.*, in regard to the different lines of instruction which are taught in the different classes. Up to this day the teaching of Latin begins in both kinds of schools in the lowest class, and occupies the greatest part of the boys' time, absorbing nearly their whole strength. How the boys are tortured with learning the names of thousands of incoherent things in one year, the abundance of

declensions and terminations, the abstract grammatical rules, the necessity of thinking in a foreign idiom when they have not yet learned to think in their own, or perhaps even to think at all, all this you know best yourselves. But perhaps you will say, as a great many people say here: "We have been forced to learn it (everybody, however, takes care to say, 'I wished to learn it, I was eager to learn it, I was enchanted with learning it') and so young ones must learn it too." If we adhere to such principles there will be no progress in the world, and if people had thought like them the torture and the rack would still be in use; for our forefathers might have said: "The criminals have been tortured as yet, so this useful institution must forevermore remain in use!"

No, it is a progress that the reformed schools have altered the succession of the subjects of instruction and that they do not begin with the difficult language, and a dead one, too, but with the easy one and a living one, besides, which the boys can hear, speak at home, and which they really like to learn, which they learn even to speak with enthusiasm, not because of the language, but because it is taught otherwise than has been done with Latin.

This language is French, and the great spell which it possesses is that the pupils learn not only to read and write it, but also to speak it, and, what is more, first to speak and then to read and write it. What a pleasure it is to teach a class of gifted boys a living language! You show them first the characteristic marks of French pronunciation, the nasal sound, the *son mouillé*, the position of the tongue (the base of articulation, as the modern philologists call it), and then you wander with them round the schoolroom, showing them the different objects in it, denoting them with your finger and telling the French names. How eagerly they follow that finger, how they vie with each other in repeating the French words. And then you form questions, of the easiest kind of course, but they enable you to make a conversation with the boys. What a pride swells their youthful hearts! They return home, shouting when they enter: "We have spoken French, mamma! Look here: *Qu'est-ce que c'est?*

(pointing at the window). Now answer, ma! What a pleasure for him if, when she answers with a smile: *C'est une fenêtre.*

After having taught them how to write and read the words they have first learned to speak, just as it is done with the native language, you leave the schoolroom, you take a walk with them through the town, through the garden, to the wood, into the country. To assist their fancy you get large pictures representing the objects which you intend to show them, attached to the blackboard or to the wall, and the pupils' eyes sparkle as they look at the pictures, and they follow you as willingly and as gladly as if you were really going to take a walk with them.

Then you read with them from their French reader. You learn short poems by heart with them, and if you are a musician—no matter if you are a very poor one—you sing some French songs with them. If you can do this—that you are absolutely master of the class is a matter of course—the boys will do wonders and rapidly improve their pronunciation, which is twice as clear and correct in singing as in speaking. Finally, you tell them short tales, and you may depend upon it, the more interesting your tale the better they will understand you, the sooner they will be able to tell you the whole story again.

You see such a lesson is full of life; there are none of the boys who sit there dreaming of the toys at home or playing with trifles under the desk while you exert yourself to teach them. But perhaps you are an adherent of the old system, dreadfully antagonistic, and you say to me: "You forget of what use Latin is to French when it is taught first. The boys learned so rapidly and easily table = *Tisch* from *tabula*, *plaindre* = *klagen* from *plangere*, *teindre* = *malen* from *tingere*," etc. There is no gainsaying, but do you doubt, dear sir, that the boys will have any more difficulty in learning *tabula* = *Tafel* when they know already the French "table," and when the teacher explains to them that the two languages are intimately connected?

Latin lessons in the reformed schools of both kinds begin in lower third, and, joined to mathematics, they weigh heavily upon the boys in the lower and upper third. From the lower second there begins the division of the two schools: the gymnasium

teaches Greek, the realgymnasium English; and now they differ widely from each other, the former laying the chief weight upon classical languages and history, the latter on modern languages and mathematics—the former preparing for the universities, the latter for the technical high schools. There is a great tendency at present, even in high places, to grant the pupils of the realgymnasium the privilege of studying medicine at the universities, a privilege which they indeed deserve, but it is still to be obtained.

The great advantage of the reform movement is to have altered the succession of the subjects of teaching, to have given a common base to the two rival schools, and, last, not least, to have granted to the native language, to German, an appropriate and worthy place among the subjects for instruction, just in the beginning of the training of the minds, from the sixth to the fourth class, where it occupies most lessons beside the French. You can no longer reproach us with neglecting our mother tongue, and with the absurdity of teaching German by the example of Latin and Greek.

It is a progress, but much remains still to be done, especially in a sanitary point of view. The wants of German schools in this respect will be shown when I shall have the pleasure of expressing to you the progress in teaching English after the new plan of the reform schools.

OSCAR THIERGEN

DRESDEN
February 1900

WHERE ARE THE HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS?

ANYONE whose duties give frequent opportunity for high-school visitation cannot fail to be struck by the fact that the boys are conspicuously absent in nearly all high-school classes. It is not an infrequent experience to find a good-sized class with not a single boy, while a class with twenty girls and two or three stray and lonesome boys is fairly common. Rare, indeed, is it to find a class where the boys are approximately equal to the girls, and practically impossible to find a class where the boys outnumber the girls. Frequent observations of this sort led the writers to undertake an investigation to determine whether the attendance of boys in the high schools was proportionately decreasing, and if so, what were the causes of such decrease, and what remedies could be suggested.

In the United States, according to the reports of Commissioner Harris, the percentage of boys in our public high schools from 1890 to 1897 is as follows:

Year 1890	-	42.67 per cent.	Year 1894	-	-	40.45 per cent.		
" 1891	-	41.27	"	"	1895	-	41.15	"
" 1892	-	40.59	"	"	1896	-	41.51	"
" 1893	-	40.10	"	"	1897	-	42.36	"

In these eight years the proportion of attendance has remained about stationary. These reports are not complete enough to justify any very accurate conclusions. It is difficult to get accurate statistics on this subject, covering a wide enough range of years and from adequate distribution of localities, to throw proper light on the subject. A study of the reports of Massachusetts, Michigan, and Iowa, taken as a typical eastern, central, and western state, for the years 1890 to 1897, inclusive, show the percentage of boys in the high school to vary during these years from 38 to 45 per cent., the ratio being a little higher in Massachusetts than in either Michigan or Iowa. The following figures were found for the given years for different cities in different parts of the United States:

PERCENTAGE OF BOYS IN TOTAL HIGH-SCHOOL ATTENDANCE OF
DIFFERENT CITIES

Boston, 1896	-	48 per cent.	Cleveland, 1898	-	40 per cent.
Philadelphia, 1895	-	43 "	Denver, 1896	-	40 "
Springfield, 1898	-	40 "	Kansas City, 1896	-	36 "
Detroit, 1894	-	41 "	Little Rock, 1896	-	32 "
Cincinnati, 1894	-	43 "	Minneapolis, 1898	-	43 "

For many sections, full sets of reports were not available, and even where they were, this particular feature was frequently not given. The reports of St. Louis and Chicago were available, complete, over a considerable range of years. These reports gave the following statistics:

CITY OF ST. LOUIS

Year 1881	-	27 per cent. boys	Year 1890	-	26 per cent. boys
" 1882	-	25 "	" 1891	-	24 "
" 1883	-	25 "	" 1892	-	24 "
" 1884	-	25 "	" 1893	-	22 "
" 1885	-	24 "	" 1894	-	23 "
" 1886	-	26 "	" 1895	-	27 "
" 1887	-	25 "	" 1896	-	28 "
" 1888	-	23 "	" 1897	-	31 "
" 1889	-	23 "	" 1898	-	33 "

CITY OF CHICAGO.

Year 1881	-	29 per cent. boys	Year 1890 ^x	-	26 per cent. boys
" 1882	-	28 ¹ "	" 1891	-	28 "
" 1883	-	28 "	" 1892	-	28 "
" 1884	-	29 "	" 1893	-	28 "
" 1885	-	27 "	" 1894	-	29 "
" 1886	-	25 "	" 1895	-	30 "
" 1887	-	25 "	" 1896	-	29 "
" 1888	-	24 "	" 1897	-	30 "
" 1889	-	23 "	" 1898	-	32 "

If the last table be compared with the preceding figures, it will appear that the attendance of boys is proportionately considerably lower in the large cities than in the country as a whole, whereas the figures for the states of Massachusetts, Michigan, and Iowa gave a proportionate attendance of boys substantially the same as for the whole country, according to the reports of the Bureau of Education. For example, in the year 1896, the

^x Year of annexation.

percentage for the whole country is 41.51, for St. Louis, 28, and for Chicago, 29. Figures are at hand, also, to indicate, if not to prove, that the proportionate attendance of boys is much less in the last year than in the first year of the high school—a conclusion which most observers would justify. Here are the figures:

Boston, 1896	-	First Year H. S.	47 per cent.	Fourth Year	30 per cent.
Chicago, 1897	-	"	34 "	"	22 "
" 1898	-	"	37 "	"	22 "
St. Louis, 1894	-	"	30 "	"	18 "
" 1895	-	"	37 "	"	17 "
" 1896	-	"	37 "	"	19 "
" 1897	-	"	35 "	"	20 "
" 1898	-	"	36 "	"	28 "

These statistics, incomplete as they were (and it seemed impossible to make them more complete, for reasons already suggested), justify the impression that high schools are in danger of losing their coeducational character and becoming exclusively female seminaries. That such a result was undesirable seemed beyond question. In order to ascertain, if possible, the general attitude of the educational public toward this question, a question blank was prepared and sent to the superintendents or high-school principals of all the large cities of the United States. The following questions were proposed:

1. Are social and industrial conditions such that there is less need of high-school education for boys than for girls?
2. Would separate schools for boys and girls tend to increase the attendance of boys?
3. What changes would you advise in the present high-school system to draw and hold the boys?
4. Would you advise the introduction of more manual training into high schools?
5. Would you favor the introduction of commercial high schools to draw the boys?
6. Would more male teachers in the grades and high schools tend to increase the number of boys in attendance?
7. Would the introduction of algebra and Latin or German into the seventh and eighth grades, by stimulating the pupils' interest and accustoming them gradually to high-school methods, tend to bridge over the gap between the grammar school and the high school, and so to increase high-school attendance?
8. Kindly give any further suggestions that occur to you.

The answers to these questions are tabulated as follows:

Number of question	Answer—yes	Answer—no	In doubt	Not answering
Question - - - 1	1	47	none	few
Question - - - 2	6	38	few	few
Question - - - 3	Cannot be tabulated.		All advise	some change
Question - - - 4	36	6	none	few
Question - - - 5	34	11	few	none
Question - - - 6	33	10	many	none
Question - - - 7	21	20	few	few
Question - - - 8	Cannot be tabulated.			many

Taking up the questions in order some of the answers will now be given in full.

1. Are social and industrial conditions such that there is less need of high-school education for boys than girls?

All but one answered this in negative, some very emphatically. Some thought that there was a greater need of high-school education for boys than girls.

One writes: "In this age of keen competition every boy should have at least a high-school education." Another: "No; but boys can get work without education, while girls cannot, except at service they will not accept." Another: "I believe high-school trained boys are needed as well as similarly trained girls. Common-school positions open to girls give them an advantage." Another: "Most boys know they must become bread-winners, therefore seek employment early in life, and more avenues are open to them." Another: "The competition of women and girls in clerical work throws the boys into manual labor."

2. Would separate schools for boys and girls tend to increase the attendance of boys?

There was a difference of opinion here; the majority, however, favoring coeducation. Some thought separate schools would decrease attendance of boys; one "that it would do in the East but not in the West."

One favoring separate schools writes: "School programs at present are an unsatisfactory compromise between the demands of two sexes." Another: "We have separate schools for boys and girls throughout whole school course. Senior class this year, 52 girls, 47 boys. Another: "I believe in separate schools. We have them; but the attendance of girls is greater; the reason lies deeper than this."

Answers to question No. 3 will be taken up with No. 8 as they naturally go together.

4. Would you advise the introduction of more manual training in schools?

Nearly all were in favor of manual training in separate schools, where practicable, and as courses in regular high schools where not.

One writes: "Some boys are reached only in this way." The principal of an English high and manual-training school writes: "Fully 50 per cent of boys in this school would not attend were it not for manual training." One who opposes manual training writes: "No. We have a very good manual-training course in connection with our high school. The tendency is to devote too much time to manual training."

5. Would you favor the introduction of commercial high schools to draw the boys?

The majority favored this plan but preferred commercial courses in the regular high schools to separate commercial high schools.

One writes: "Yes. We have tried it, both with, and without, and know whereof we speak." Another: "Give us commercial education that trains for business." Another: "We have done this and it has decidedly increased the attendance, without detracting from other departments of the high school." Another: "With a properly organized curriculum, and manned by college men of as good ability as the best in regular high school, yes."

6. Would more male teachers in the grades and high school tend to increase the number of boys in attendance?

While the larger number were in favor of this plan many were in doubt. Most of those who favored the plan said we must have good male teachers if a change is made.

One writes: "In grades, no. In high school at least as many male as female teachers." Another: "Yes. If first-class male teachers." Another: "In my opinion the most potent cause of lack of attendance of boys in high schools is lack of male teachers in grammar grades." Another: "I would put more male teachers in the high school. Boys, I think, prefer male teachers, but *good teachers* are always the first *desideratum*. It is useless to talk about more men teachers in the average grammar school. The fact is there is no city I know anything about that is willing to pay large enough salaries to induce strong men to teach in the grades for any length of time."

7. Would the introduction of algebra and Latin or German into the seventh and eighth grades, by stimulating the pupils' interest and accustoming them gradually to high-school methods, tend to bridge over the gap between grammar and high schools, and so increase high-school attendance?

To this question the answers were about equally divided. Some had not yet formed an opinion, others thought that it would crowd out many elementary branches, while still others say if this work were *well* done in grades it would accomplish this end.

One writes: "We have done this and find it is going to do all we expected." And another: "We have tried it and the result has been unsatisfactory. (We tried the algebra and German)." Another: "Algebra would. I would substitute easy science in place of Latin or German." Another: "Three years experience with algebra has been successful in this direction." Another: "Yes, think there should be a six-year high school beginning at seventh grade." Another: "It might encourage a few but it would be at the expense of the many." Another: "If seventh and eighth-grade teachers are able to teach these subjects *well*, it might."

Let us now take up questions three and eight, suggestions not outlined in other questions of methods for drawing and holding the boys.

An Eastern man writes: "A broadening of course, a wide range of electives, a release from the educational methods of the Middle Ages, more rational methods of discipline, closer attention to needs of individual and special consideration of the demands of the adolescent, in general more sense and vitality. The grammar and high school should be brought more closely together. The grammar school needs to be greatly enriched and rendered attractive. Of those who enter the high school the great loss is in the first year, and in my judgment is due largely to the plunge into college methods, which do not belong in the high school. The extension of the grammar-school idea of care of the individual to the extent of seeing that he is properly interested in his high-school course would hold through to graduation very many who drop from lack of sympathy." Another: "There should be instilled all through the course, the love for higher education." Another: "Many boys *must* go to work. Many *think* they must. Parents should be aroused by public sentiment to keep the boys in school." Another: "We need a campaign of education on this subject through Mothers' and Fathers' Clubs all over the country." Another: "Too many parents seem to think that but very little education is necessary for a business career. When the parents can be made to see the value of an education they will *make*

their boys go to school." Another: "First put some common sense into education below the high school. The mischief begins as low as the fifth grade. Too many antiquated abstractions are palmed off on the boys. Rational and industrial training in and below the high school will help." Another: "Teachers should mingle more with life and business and know men and conditions; live less in a fool's paradise." Two give this answer: "If eighth grade were in same building with high school and department work done here by high-school teachers much good would come." Another: "Have but one course of study. English. Discourage and finally drop Latin and Greek." Another: "A cadet organization; athletic association, some form of deliberative assembly; placing as much responsibility as possible upon the boys; looking upon and dealing with them as young men will tend to hold them in the high school." Another: "I believe that the present high-school course unfits *every boy* for everything except college. I believe that the course is a positive curse to 95 per cent. of boys who take it. The classical course is an aristocratic idea extended to a democracy yet it has a prestige and thereby detracts in a boy's estimation from the merit of an English course diploma. There should be but one diploma given. If we are to hold the boys the course must be good in English, good in manual training, good in business training. The percentage that will enter professional life is a small fraction. The prestige and glory should be centered around a course that fits for the life of the 99 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent."

Some suggestions, to use no stronger term, certainly follow from the answers here given. It is obvious, for one thing, that our superintendents and principals are practically unanimous in rejecting the idea that the social and industrial conditions in this country are such that girls need a high-school education more than boys. The American high school is our one unique educational institution, the only new element that we have certainly contributed to the world's educational system. It is the people's college, and yet it is obvious that from this people's college the boys are, for some reason or other, turning away. During most of this century we have been agitating the question of higher education for women. Possibly we have neglected a little to attend to the higher education of boys. Certainly, if we are not to have a comparatively ignorant male proletariat opposed to a female aristocracy, it is time to pause and devise ways and means for getting more of our boys to attend the high school.

It seems to be true that where separate schools for boys and girls have been tried, the attendance of boys is practically equal

to the attendance of girls. The separate school plan, however, has never found favor in the West, and there are grave doubts expressed by many whether it ever will. If our girls continue to outnumber our boys two, three, and four to one, as they do in some cities of the West, then we have the anomaly of schools attended chiefly by girls, though planned exclusively for boys; for it is certainly true that our secondary program of studies, as it has come down to us, is one which was shaped entirely with a view to training boys. A half century ago girls were reluctantly admitted to the existing boys' high schools and academies as the simplest and most inexpensive way of meeting the cry for justice to women in educational advantages. Now we find the girls apparently driving the boys out of these very schools, yet no one has seriously undertaken to consider whether the best program for boys is also necessarily the best program for girls.

It can hardly be doubted that in this practical age the question which our young men are asking is, Will a high-school education pay? Unless it is practical, unless it appears that it will pay, it will seem to them and to their parents much like wasting the best four years of their life to attain this high-school education. We have not yet broken sufficiently with the notion, which one of the writers so strongly expresses, that our high school is intended to fit boys for a profession or for college. We have not realized that it must also fit them for the business of life. This can be done, in the opinion of the majority of our correspondents, by the introduction of strong manual-training courses and ample commercial courses in the existing high schools. Superintendent Nightingale, of Chicago, in one of his late reports says: "There is great need for schools to attract the boys. Chicago should have three manual-training high schools. I am convinced that twelve hundred boys would attend, if these schools were located each in one of the three sides of the city. Philadelphia is just opening a commercial high school with a full four years' course of study. Chicago should have one. There should be a separate school, well located, thoroughly equipped, where commercial geography,

industrial chemistry, history of transportation, economics, modern languages, and other kindred studies may be pursued. Such schools are sure to come, and what should prevent Chicago from being among the first?" From the St. Louis report we take the following: "St. Louis should have a first-class manual-training high school, capable of accommodating fifteen hundred pupils, boys and girls. Our present high-school attendance is abnormally small." Such is the verdict of many others. One writer expresses it thus, "We must not refuse a system because of its utility."

With reference to more male teachers in grades and high schools as a method for holding the boys there is a wide difference of opinion. Nevertheless, this method is being considered by many of our school boards and superintendents. We have one school board in mind that this year put university men, the best they could get, into their seventh and eighth grades, paying them a larger salary than the assistants in the high school. Boys as a rule prefer male teachers, and it is the opinion of many of our best educators that it is better for boys to be under the influence of good, strong men during their last years in the grades, while in the high school they should have at least as many male teachers as female.

There is little doubt as to the importance of bridging over the gap between the grammar and the high school. This has been tried in the way suggested in the questions in many places, and with one exception, so far as the replies were received, with good results. The eighth grade, as now arranged, is little more than a repetition of the seventh, while the seventh repeats very much of the sixth. Boys long for a change. If new subjects were introduced and well taught, all the pupils, boys included, would be more strongly interested in their school work.

To carry out any of these suggestions offered, we must have the coöperation of superintendents, teachers, parents, and school boards. They all mean more work for the teacher and more taxes for the parent. But if better results can be obtained, will not the end attained far outweigh the extra burden? We are training for citizenship. Our boys will soon be voters. The

paramount interest of society demands that they shall be educated voters. To be such we must get them into the high school, and train them for the problems of the future.

F. E. DE YOE

C. H. THURBER

THE DIFFERENTIATION OF THE SECONDARY CURRICULUM IN FRANCE.¹

It does not suffice to formulate new programs of instruction and to enact new ordinances; capable teachers are also required, who are able to put them into operation. The fact that too little attention was given this latter factor, proved fatal to the reform of 1880 in French secondary education. Of what value was it to recommend and explain the new methods in annual circulars to a body of teachers, who, in the great majority, were neither able nor willing to leave their old ruts; who neither knew nor desired to know the truth with regard to pedagogy, *i. e.*, that it, too, is an art, in which some individuals can learn, discover, and create more, others less. This deficiency in pedagogical training caused an overburdening of the pupils, which, independent of the injurious effects on physical development, diminished the pleasure in study in general, and the possibility of any individual development, thus causing dissatisfaction in many circles.

The new curriculum was attacked not only by those whose discontent arose from these malconditions, but by those, also, who were by principle opponents of this new program, *i. e.*, those who perceived in a curtailing of Greek and Latin instruction, a serious injury to education and culture, as well as by those, in whose opinion Ferry had not gone far enough in his reforms. To the urgent demands of the former, the government yielded in part. The supreme council of education, elected in 1884, whose election had shown that many teachers were more conservative now than four years ago, accepted the propositions of the standing committee on July 26, according to which Greek was transferred back to Class V (U III of the German gymnasium), and was also taught beginning with January, in two recitation-periods which Latin had lost, instruction in history and geography in *VI* and

¹This discussion is especially appropriate at the present time, since it shows how our great sister republic has struggled to solve one of the chief problems of secondary education now in process of solution in the United States. The article is based upon a paper by Dr. Carl Dorfeld in *Deutsche Zeitschrift für ausländisches Unterrichtswesen*, October 1896. See also other articles on this general subject by Dr. Jonas, SCHOOL REVIEW, Vol. IV, p. 698, and by Mr. Hardy, SCHOOL REVIEW, Vol. VII, p. 549, Vol. VIII, p. 18. A full treatment of the subject may be found in BAUMEISTER, *Handbuch der Erziehungs- und unterrichtslehre*.—EDITOR SCHOOL REVIEW.

V was again assigned to the class-teachers, Thursday was made a holiday, and in all the classes the number of recitations per week was again reduced to twenty, omitting the two hours devoted to drawing, as against twenty-four of 1880.

Corresponding to the diminished number of recitations, the supreme council of education curtailed the subject-matter, especially in the natural sciences, but also in history and geography, and, in a few cases, in the languages. Though the relief thus afforded by the new program of January 22, 1885, received much approval, reproach cannot be spared the government for introducing changes too often and rapidly, since, after scarcely four years, during which the program was in operation, a conclusive decision as to its efficiency, especially under the prevailing conditions, could not be arrived at. Nevertheless contentment was still a Utopian ideal, which could be attained in France at this time just as little as it can in Germany at present. As long as the humanistic institutions hold a monopoly of all the higher careers, the majority of parents, whether they will or not, are compelled to confide their sons to these institutions, in order that they may not find themselves at a disadvantage in the later choice of a vocation. The great majority, however, cannot entertain a friendly attitude toward the humanistic education, which, being aristocratic, has at all times been calculated only for the minority—especially in this age of steam and electricity, an age in which competition in a large number of departments daily brings the nations into closer contact. A constant pressure will be exerted toward modifying the programs of instruction and bringing them into conformity with the needs of the times, at the expense of the classics, and general contentment will, therefore, remain an unattained ideal. The advocates of the several views all think as did once Condillac: *Nous passons notre enfance à nous fatiguer pour ne rien apprendre, ou pour n'apprendre que de choses qui sont inutiles ; et nous sommes condamnés à attendre l'âge viril pour nous instruire réellement.*

In order to comprehend the incessant attacks against the programs, we must now consider how few provisions were made for the majority of pupils.

It had been recognized for more than two hundred years that, between the universities and the gymnasias, there was lacking a school calculated for all those who did not wish to qualify themselves for the liberal professions; but not till 1829, if we omit the short-lived *Écoles centrales*, were steps taken in this direction, when certain *Collèges*

received permission to organize special classes, in which the pupils, besides receiving instruction in their mother-tongue, were to study more in detail mathematics and the sciences and their application to industry, as well as modern languages and the theory of commerce. But these "merchant classes" (*classes d'épicier, classes de français*) were but poorly attended, and the disfavor shown them on the part of the parents, who were obliged to decide upon the choice of vocation for their children very early, as well as the aversion of the teachers, who were discontented with the new organization of H. Fortouls contributed toward the downfall of the bifurcation which this minister introduced in 1852.

After that no division of the pupils was made up to the fourth class (German O III) inclusive, but in the higher classes a *Section des Lettres* and a *Section des Sciences* were formed, which unfortunately were separated only in some branches, but were united in French, geography, German, English, and partly so in Latin and logic. The application of an idea correct in itself went amiss in its details.

The demand for a seasonable reform of the school system again became more loud, when the economic progress, the advancement of commerce and industry presented itself to the eyes of the French in the case of those nations that had established schools adapted to the needs of the great mass of the people, as was shown in the exposition at London. In the year 1862 a commission was instructed to study the question of industrial education, and on the result of their investigation is based the law of June 21, 1865, by which the minister, Duruy, promoted a national problem, the complete solution of which has been realized neither in France nor Germany up to the present day.

According to this, the branches of instruction of the *Enseignement secondaire spécial* were: morals and religion, the mother-tongue and its literature, history and geography, applied mathematics, physics, mechanics, chemistry, natural history and its application to agriculture and industry, outline drawing, and bookkeeping; besides, there could be taught one or several modern languages, the elements of law, of industrial economics, of agriculture, and of hygiene, ornamental and copy drawing, singing, and gymnastics. The programs were not identical for all the schools, but varied according to local requirements, the presenting of which was in the hands of a *Conseil de perfectionnement*. The applied sciences were to be taught with constant reference to the phenomena of daily life, and, above all things, were to be instrumental in developing adroitness, power of observation, and

judgment, while literature, history, and ethics were to insure a certain general culture.

Those pupils who successfully passed the final examination before a special committee were awarded a diploma, which, however, represented no particular privileges. For this reason it was not especially sought for, and, in fact, most of the pupils did not go through the last four classes of the institution (the twelfth to the sixteenth year). They left the school after the second or third, and could do this all the more easily since, concentrically, each class attempted to transmit a completed sum of knowledge. Since the gymnasium instructors looked down upon the new institutions with contempt, and only reluctantly gave instruction in them, and other teachers were not available, Duruy founded a seminary for the training of proper instructors in the former Benedictine abbey Cluny, the students of which, in the beginning, were mainly public-school teachers, and for whom he created the *Agrégation de l'enseignement spécial* (March 28, 1866). This institution did not realize the hopes placed in it, for it did not send out—as the recruiting of its pupils might have indicated in advance—teachers equipped with so general and thorough an education as the gymnasium instructors were. This circumstance, which was not of a nature to reflect favorably on the new school, was of a necessity all the more striking as it presented itself spontaneously every day, not only in the involuntary comparison in the case of fellow teachers in the same school, who had been educated in the old gymnasias, but also with the instructors in the gymnasium, as the *Enseignement spécial*, for which buildings of its own could not be provided for financial reasons, occupied the buildings and the rooms of the *Enseignement classique*. Furthermore, it stood under the management of the director of the gymnasium, who, though not always openly hostile, at most was only indifferently favorable to the new *enseignement*, owing, perhaps, to a lack of experience with it and appreciation of its work.

Article 10 of the ordinance of August 4, 1881,^{*} was calculated to obviate this difficulty, for it gave promise of the separation of the polytechnic institutions from the gymnasias and the city schools of a classical character, as far as the financial conditions would permit. The commission which was preparing the changes had already provided for at least one special director of the *Enseignement spécial*, beside the principal of the entire institution. This same ordinance checked the annoyance that pupils could leave the school any year with more or less impunity, and thus those pupils remaining were

compelled to be burdened and retarded with constant reviewing; for in Article I it was determined that the three-year elementary course in the program was to coincide with that of the gymnasium of the 2d of August, 1880 (*i. e.*, up to and including the German quinta), that another three-year course was to follow this, which should be of such a nature and so conducted as to prepare for an examination, which was taken at the capital of each district before the inspector of the academy and six members of the *Enseignement secondaire*. This entire course was to be concluded by a two-years' course, from which Latin, in spite of the demand of several *Conseils académiques*, was justly excluded, and at the end of which, similar to the *Enseignement classique*, the diploma of *Bachelier de l'Enseignement secondaire spécial* was conferred. For those pupils of the public school who desired to enter the middle course a preparatory class could be arranged in which those branches might principally be pursued which were neglected in the primary schools.

This development of the *Enseignement spécial* was promoted by the rise of modern science, the marvelous discoveries in the departments of physics and chemistry, and the higher demands thereby imposed on the industrial class, as well as by the changes in social conditions and the ever-increasing intercourse between different nations. Here precisely the same phenomenon presents itself as in the *Realschulen* of Prussia, where the emphasis on the practical things and those immediately necessary for practical life was more and more replaced by a greater prominence given to general culture. Those favoring the plan of making institutions of general culture out of these practical ("realistic") schools, which, on the basis of modern elements, should offer an education adequate to the requirements of society to all those who had neither inclination nor time for the study of the classical languages, emphasized the fact that even Duruy and his coworkers had desired to see a thorough training of the intellectual faculties gained in these schools. But more attention could and must be given this intellectual and moral side, for the *Enseignement primaire supérieur*, which had developed remarkably in the last few years, was providing for that class which stood nearer the laboring class. It could, moreover, be but pleasing, they affirmed, to the defenders of the classical gymnasium if in France the same course was pursued as in northern Germany, Austria, Switzerland, and in the Scandinavian countries, for in this way the classical studies, relieved of all those who did not study Greek and Latin for their own sake, and no longer constrained by any

dangerous concessions to them, might enter upon a new epoch of flourishing development.

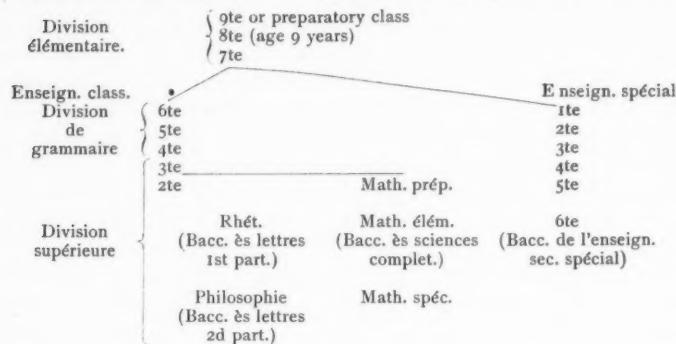
The ordinance of the 8th of August, 1886, relating to the *Enseignement secondaire spécial*, promoted the interests of this party by another step. To be sure the committee instructed to inquire into this question rejected the name *Enseignement classique français* with 19 against 11 votes, since it would have no assimilation of the technological schools with the gymnasia, and wished to have the practical and utilitarian character preserved for the former; nevertheless Goblet, the minister, in his circular to the rectors (September 29, 1886) says that the progress which had been made in this department since 1865 was now legally confirmed, that the *Enseignement spécial* must firmly keep in view the general development of the faculties, and, as far as possible, borrow from the classical instruction the manner and the method to which this owes its power and authority; the parents should be shown that there was more than one way for the education of their children, and that the *Enseignement spécial*, vanquishing the last prejudices against it, would soon take its place by the side of the *Enseignement classique*.

The development of the *Enseignement spécial* during the following years into a school of general scientific preparation was fully recognized by the democratic government by the act of coördinating with the *Enseignement classique* in the year 1891. In doing this the republic only obeyed a natural tendency, as it removed more and more the barrier between the classes of the people caused by the aristocratic education.

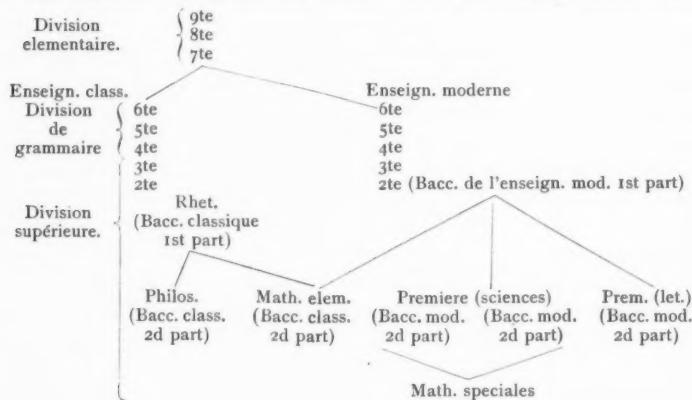
Not unjustly had it been claimed by the advocates of the technological schools—and the government itself admitted the fact now—that the education of a *Bachelier de l' Enseignement spécial* was better, because more uniform, than that of a *Bachelier ès Sciences*, who, after the *Troisième*, left the gymnasium and transferred to *Mathématiques préparatoires* and later to *Mathématiques élémentaires*, continued his Latin, to be sure, but only very deficiently, having two hours per week in the first year, and in the next, together with the French, only two hours, gave up Greek entirely, and had no returns whatever for his pains spent on the classical languages up to his fifteenth year. Thus the entire secondary education was newly organized: the *Enseignement secondaire classique* by the ordinances of January 28 and August 12, 1890, the *Enseignement secondaire moderne*—this is its new name, which of itself externally coördinates it with its elder brother, the *classique*—

by the act of June 15, 1891. The construction is far more unified than formerly, as the following tabulation shows:

FORMER ARRANGEMENT OF SECONDARY CURRICULUM IN FRANCE.



ARRANGEMENT OF SECONDARY CURRICULUM IN FRANCE SINCE 1890.



With regard to the distribution of recitations in the gymnasium, the following alterations from the program of 1885 are seen. In the preparatory class, French is given one half hour more, arithmetic and object lessons one half hour less, the modern languages, which, beginning with the sixth class, formerly had two hours each, now have one and one half, and a one hour's *Conférence*,¹ in *Rhétorique* two and one

¹ This is exclusively given up to oral exercises, and no prepared work of any kind is assigned for it.

half hours, and in the *Classe de Philosophie* they are optional. In each of the classes from the sixth to the *Classe de Rhétorique*, one half hour has been withdrawn from history; in the latter class, however, a one hour's *Conférence* for history and geography is introduced. Mathematics and the natural sciences lose one half hour each in the preparatory class, and in the *Division de grammaire*, in *Seconde* and *Rhétorique*, one and one half hours each, and in *Philosophie* two. Drawing is required from the sixth to the third class, having one and one half hours for each, and Latin receives an additional hour in the second class.

The requirements in the classical languages have remained essentially the same; the *Thème*, however, has been reintroduced in Latin in the *Rhétorique*, and in Greek in the second and third classes; the work in the grammar has been somewhat modified; in the reading requirements, some authors have been canceled, as Aristophanes, Terence, and others, some authors have been transferred from one class to another, works of the same author have been replaced by others, and some requirements altogether omitted, but, even with these changes, the program remains overburdening and the requirements too high for the majority.

French has retained the foremost position, which it had gained for itself in 1880; the general method has remained the same, and only now and then are found revisions of the programs of 1880. In the *Division élémentaire*, the instruction in the grammar has been made more elementary, in the succeeding classes, the requirements were somewhat raised, and the instruction in the history of the French language was limited to the facts that are essential and intelligible to the pupils. In the selection of masterpieces, we find slight alterations, just as in the classical languages.

With regard to the *Enseignement secondaire moderne*, it is to be said that its teachers now have the same preparation, the same salary, and the same privileges as their colleagues of the classical gymnasia, and its graduates, who since 1886 had been admitted to most offices, are now entitled to admission in the central administration of all cabinets, to the veterinary schools, to higher commercial and agricultural schools, to postal telegraph, police and custom service, to pharmacy, and to the office of a physician of the second class, to the *École polytechnique* and *St.-Cyr*, *École normale supérieure (Sciences)*, to the position of a teacher of modern languages, of mathematics, or the natural sciences, of a teacher in the lower classes of a gymnasium or a seminary, of an inspector of public schools, of a *maitre répétiteur*, but not

to the other chairs of instruction, nor to medicine nor jurisprudence. The course of the *Enseignement moderne* is shorter by a year than that of the *Enseignement classique*.

This curriculum of the secondary education, too, though but a few years old, undoubtedly has lived its longest day. And justly so. If we consider the work usually done in Greek now in the higher classes of the French gymnasia and in the examination for the bachelor's degree, in spite of the favor shown this branch in the programs of 1885 and 1890, if we call to mind the uncertainty and groping that has crept in, we must say, it would be better to drop Greek as an obligatory study for the great majority of the pupils, as has already been demanded in Germany. For this way it neither cultivates accuracy and conscientious work, nor does it prepare the pupil to read with real understanding and true enjoyment. In doing this the loss will not be altogether irremediable in our present state of educational advantages and culture development, for good translations, such as we now possess, afford a better introduction into the spirit of those works and into the life of the times than reading the original can in the case of most pupils, for the grammatical and linguistic difficulties are so serious that the students rarely arrive at any real enjoyment of the masterpiece. For admirers of the classical languages, let the number of recitations in Latin and Greek again be increased, together with a corresponding decrease of the requirements in the modern branches in their case—for, surely, not all students need be equally versed in all departments of knowledge—in order that these two languages may exert to the full extent their intrinsic power as educational factors.

Of course, a number of pupils of the latter kind sufficiently large to establish special institutions will be found only in the larger cities; in smaller places such departments would be under necessity of affiliating with some higher institution of learning. The establishment of such purely classical schools would, moreover, approach a suggestion of Bréal, which he developed in his *Excursions pédagogiques* and elsewhere. Of course, admission to medical and law schools would be granted to the institutions teaching only Latin; in fact, would it not be advisable to go a step farther and grant equal privileges to all the three higher institutions of learning, even to the *Enseignement moderne* (the German *Oberrealschule*) in spite of the fact that the latter does not teach Latin, which, on account of its historical significance, having been for so long a time the medium of expression of church, state, and science, still seems almost indispensable. For,

in reality, the graduates will choose professions for which they have the requisite preparation ; if on the other hand, one or another of them, yielding to a strong inclination, should decide in favor of a career for which his preparation is inadequate, he will, by the very reason of the examination, be obliged by double diligence and zeal, to make up his deficiencies, and without doubt will readily do so.

Only in this way can the disadvantage of the early choice of profession be diminished, the classical and modern education set on an equal footing, and the higher institutions of learning equipped justly, because equally, for the contest.

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SOME RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

THE recent report of the Commission on Secondary Education in France has some very interesting comments upon the trend of education in that country. It appears that the population of the *lycées* and *collèges*, after steadily rising until in 1884 there were some 91,000 pupils, has been steadily falling, and today there are but 85,000. This loss has been among the boarding pupils. The private clerical schools have been the gainers and have increased by 16,000 pupils during this same period, so that they are now in a decided majority. Arbitrary and defective distribution and unsuitable buildings are urged as some of the reasons for this decline, and specific instances are cited. Paris with three millions has sixteen *lycées*; Marseilles with half a million, but one. At Valenciennes provision was made for one hundred and fifty boarders; there are at present forty-three. The *lycée* of Bordeaux is a made-over cavalry barracks; the *lycée* of Montluçon was built at a cost of nearly two million francs for eight hundred pupils, and there are less than three hundred.

The report says: "Twice as much as was necessary has been spent in building and today twice as much as is necessary is being spent in maintaining buildings that serve no purpose. But the indifference to the financial interests of the state is as nothing compared to the pedagogic aberration revealed by the existing state of things." This is followed by an examination of some of the *lycées* of Paris most of which are built to hold from one to two thousand pupils, and one does actually hold 1847. These are what the commission dubs "pedagogic monstrosities," where the individuality of the pupil does not get a fair chance and where everything savors of barracks life and discipline. Perhaps the one of the recommendations which may be of special interest to secondary school teachers in this country will be that relating to the proposed changes in the curricula and programs. These are grouped as follows:

1. *General*.—The programs to be much less specialized, and the *proviseurs* to have a much freer hand in applying them; greater elasticity to be assured in the choice of subjects; the system of graduated courses (*cours gradués*) in each subject to be substituted, as far as possible, for that of classes; no lesson period to last more than an hour.

2. *Classical side.*—The classical course is to be divided into two cycles of three years each; the program for the first cycle to include moral education, civic instruction, French, Latin, one modern language, history, geography, the elements of mathematics, and drawing; Latin to be taught in three graduated courses of a year each, each master, wherever possible, keeping the same boys for the three years; Greek, which is optional, to begin in the third year; the second cycle to include (a) the following compulsory subjects: French literature, Latin literature, Greek language and literature, history from the point of view of the development of civilization, geography, and philosophy; (b) the following optional subjects: mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural history, and modern literatures.

3. *Modern side.*—The modern side curriculum also to be divided into two cycles of three years each; the program of the first cycle to include moral education, and civic instruction, French, one modern language, history, geography, the elements of science, and drawing; optional complementary courses—commercial, industrial, or agricultural—to be added to suit local conditions; the second cycle to offer a choice among mathematics, physics, and natural science, French literature, modern languages and literatures, philosophy, history of civilization, geography in its relations to political economy, and drawing.

4. *Modern languages and drawing.*—In the first cycle the teaching of modern languages is to be essentially practical; sufficient time to be devoted to them to enable the pupils to read, write, and, so far as possible, speak the particular language they are learning; pupils to be separately classified for each language; municipalities and chambers of commerce to be asked to assist in the provision of traveling scholarships; drawing also to be taught in separate classes, to have more time devoted to it, and to carry marks in all examinations.

At the end of the first cycle an examination is recommended to be held for the Certificate of Secondary Studies, and at the end of the second cycle an examination for the Diploma of Higher Secondary Studies (either classical or modern); this diploma is to take the place of the existing *Baccalauréat* in all its forms and to be the passport to the university. It seems that some of the examiners will be chosen from among the secondary school teachers and that credit will be given at the examination for the note books of the students.

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BOOK REVIEW

Caesar for Beginners. A first Latin book. By WILLIAM T. ST. CLAIR, A.M., professor of the Latin language and literature in the Louisville Male High School. Pp. xv + 357. Longmans, Green, & Co., New York, 1899.

THE first seventy-five lessons contain the matter usually found in a Beginner's Book, paradigm's, grammatical principles, Latin and English exercises for translation, and rules of syntax. Then follow the first fourteen chapters of the second book of the Gallic war, adapted and simplified for beginners, with notes and exercises in Latin composition. Then the unchanged text of the entire book is given, accompanied by full notes and followed by vocabularies and a summary of the paradigms.

The typographical appearance of this book is altogether neat and attractive. The long vowels are everywhere indicated, and this part of the work has been done in a conservative manner, without the introduction of fads and personal preferences. His choice of matter and its presentation plainly indicate the author's ability to recognize what is essential in the subject and what is needed by the pupil. The book is certainly worthy the attention of all Latin instructors.

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